

UNIVERSITÀ DI PARMA Dipartimento di Ingegneria e Architettura

Cryptography: Symmetric Key Establishment

Luca Veltri

(mail.to: luca.veltri@unipr.it)

Course of Cybersecurity, 2022/2023 http://netsec.unipr.it/veltri

Key management

- In a secured communication, users must setup the details of the cryptography
 - In some cases this may require sharing a symmetric key
 - > In others it may require obtaining the other party's public key
- In both cases, an issue is how to securely distribute these keys
 - > in case of symmetric key
 - must be exchanged over a secure communication channel
 - both confidentiality and data authentication must be guaranteed
 - > in case of public key
 - keys can be openly exchanged (authenticated) over an insecure communications channel
 - only message authentication must be guaranteed
 - » the exchange is less troublesome
 - » for example, by using digital certificates
- Often secure systems fail due to a break in the key distribution

Long-term vs Short-term Keys

- Cryptographic system and protocols usually deal with two types of keys with two different lifetimes:
 - > short-term keys
 - also called as <u>session keys</u>
 - used to secure a communication
 - data confidentiality
 - data authentication and integrity
 - used only for a limited interval of time
 - setup through a proper KE protocol
 - long-term keys
 - also referred to as <u>long-term secrets</u>
 - can be used for
 - peer authentication
 - securing key exchanges

(Secret) Key establishment

- Secret key establishment is a process or protocol whereby a shared secret becomes available to two or more parties, for subsequent cryptographic use
- Two approaches are possible:
 - > Key pre-distribution
 - key establishment schemes whereby the resulting established keys are completely determined "a priori" by initial keying material
 - used mainly only for long-term secret keys
 - > Dynamic key establishment (or key exchange)
 - those schemes whereby the key established by a pair (or group) of users varies on subsequent executions
 - subdivided into (see later):
 - key transport
 - key agreement

Key establishment (cont.)

- Dynamic key establishment may be broadly subdivided into:
 - > key transport
 - A key transport protocol or mechanism is a key establishment technique where one party creates or otherwise obtains a secret value, and securely transfers it to the other(s)

> key agreement

- A key agreement protocol or mechanism is a key establishment technique in which a shared secret is derived by two (or more) parties as a function of information contributed by, or associated with, each of these, (ideally) such that no party can predetermine the resulting value
- Additional variations exist, including various forms of key derivation and key update

Use of trusted servers

- Some key establishment protocols involve a centralized or trusted party, for either or both:
 - > initial system setup
 - on-line actions (involving real-time participation)
- This party is referred to by a variety of names depending on the role played
 - generically called as trusted third party or trusted server
- E.g.
 - > authentication server
 - key distribution center (KDC)
 - certification authority (CA)

Properties of key establishment

- Properties that a KE protocol may satisfy:
 - Entity authentication
 - a party in a key establishment protocol is able to determine the true identity of the other(s) which could possibly gain access to the resulting key
 - Implicit Key authentication
 - is the property whereby one party is assured that no other party aside from a specifically identified second party (and possibly additional identified trusted parties) may gain access to a particular secret key
 - the other protocol participant is the only other party that could possibly be in possession of the correct established key
 - > Key confirmation
 - is the property whereby one party is assured that a second (possibly unidentified) party actually has possession of a particular secret key
 - Explicit key authentication
 - both implicit key authentication and key confirmation hold
 - an identified party is known to actually possess a specified key
- A KE protocol is usually called "Authenticated Key Exchange" (AKE) if both entity authentication and explicit key authentication are provided
- In addition:
 - Key freshness assurance
 - · assurance that the exchanged key is new

Forward secrecy and known-key attacks

- It is important to consider the potential impact of compromise of various types of keying material
 - > even if such compromise is not normally expected
- In particular, the effect of the following is often considered:
 - > compromise of past session (established) keys
 - compromise of long-term secret (symmetric or asymmetric) keys
- A protocol is said to be "resistant to a known-key attack" if compromise of past session keys doesn't allow an adversary to compromise future session key exchanges
- A protocol is said to have "(perfect) forward secrecy" if compromise of long-term keys does not compromise past session keys
 - example: Diffie-Hellman key agreement, in some cases, may provide forward secrecy

Key transport and derivation using symmetric cryptography

Point-to-point key transport and key derivation

- Key transport or derivation based on a long-term symmetric key K_{ab} shared "a priori" by two parties A and B
 - the long-term key must be initially distributed over a secure channel or resulting from a key pre-distribution mechanism
 - the long-term key is used to establish new session keys K_s
 - KE protocol (transport/derivation): K_{AB} → K_S
- Possible techniques:
 - key transport based on symmetric encryption
 - key derivation based on non-reversible functions
- Variants:
 - key transport with one pass
 - key transport with challenge-response

Key transport

Key transport with one pass:

$$A \rightarrow B : E_{Kab}(K_S)$$

- both A and B obtain implicit key authentication
- > susceptible to known-key attacks through replay attack
- Additional optional fields might be transferred in the encrypted portion:

$$A \rightarrow B : E_{Kab}(K_S, t_A^*, B^*)$$

- field containing redundancy provides explicit key authentication to B and facilitates message modification detection
- timestamp (or sequence number) provides a sort of freshness guarantee to B
 - avoids replay attacks
- a destination identifier prevents message replay back on A
 - if a timestamp is present it provides also entity authentication to B

Key transport (cont.)

- Key transport with challenge-response:
 - ➢ If anti-replay, explicit key authentication, and entity authentication are desired for B but reliance on timestamps added by A is not, a random value or sequence number n_B may be used
 - > the cost is an additional message

$$A \leftarrow B : n_B$$

 $A \rightarrow B : E_{Kab}(K_S, n_B, B^*)$

 If it is required that the session key K_s be a function of inputs from both parties and <u>mutual authentication</u>:

$$A \leftarrow B : n_B$$

 $A \rightarrow B : E_{Kab}(k_1, n_A, n_B, B^*)$
 $A \leftarrow B : E_{Kab}(k_2, n_B, n_A, A^*)$

$$\succ$$
 K_S = f(k₁, k₂)

Key transport (cont.)

- Vulnerabilities:
 - > Any previous exchange does not offer forward secrecy
 - they fail if the long-term key K_{ab} is compromised
 - for this reason they may be inappropriate for many applications
- Note:
 - Authentication protocols which employ encryption, including the above key exchange schemes, may require that the encryption function has a built-in data integrity mechanism to detect message modification
 - i.e. Authenticated Encryption (AE)

Key derivation

 Key exchange may be achieved also by dynamic key derivation where the derived session key is based on per-session random input provided by one party

$$A \rightarrow B : r_A$$

- > single message
- \rightarrow the session key is computed as $K_S = f_{Kab}(r_A)$
 - where f is a cryptographic function, like E_K() or MAC_K()
- > provides to both A and B implicit key authentication
- susceptible to known-key attacks through replay attack
- The random number r_A here may be replaced by other timevariant parameters
 - > e.g. a timestamp t_A, provides an implicit key freshness property
 - avoids replay attack to B
 - avoids A can force a given key X

Key derivation (cont.)

- In general is preferred a keyed one-way function (like MAC_K()) for f_K(), in place of an encryption function E_K()
 - A cannot control the value of K_s
- The simple key derivation scheme can be further extended with two or three passes in order to provide:
 - contribution of B to the creation of K_s
 - > mutual entity authentication

Example of authenticated key derivation protocol

- Authenticated Key Exchange Protocol AKEP2
 - provides mutual entity authentication, key freshness guarantee, and implicit key authentication
 - > A and B exchange 3 messages
- Setup:
 - ➤ A and B share long-term symmetric keys K_{ab}

 $A \rightarrow B$: r_A $A \leftarrow B$: $X_B = \{B, A, r_A, r_B\}$, $MAC_{Kab}(X_B)$ $A \rightarrow B$: $X_\Delta = \{A, r_B\}$, $MAC_{Kab}(X_\Delta)$

- \rightarrow K_S = f_{K'}(r_B)
 - where f_k() is a keyed one-way function or encryption function
 - K' is the key used to derive Ks, usually obtained from K_{ab}

Key transport using asymmetric cryptography

Key transport based on public-key encryption

 One party may choose a symmetric key and transfer it to a second, using that party's encryption public key

$$A \rightarrow B : \{ K_S \} KU_B$$

- > this provides (implicit) key authentication to the originator (A)
 - only the intended recipient has the private key allowing decryption
 - the originator (A) obtains neither entity authentication nor key confirmation
- the second party (B) has no assurances regarding the source of the key and the timeliness
 - even if A sends to B: {K_s,A,T_A}KU_B, since KU_B is public
- > such additional assurances may be obtained through use of further techniques including:
 - additional messages, with public-key encryption
 - using challenge-response like key transport based on symmetric key
 - digital signature

Key transport using public-key encryption and signature

- Encryption and signature primitives may be used to provide respectively:
 - privacy of keying material
 - source authentication
- Some possible approaches:
 - > sign the key and separately public-key encrypt the (unsigned) key
 - > sign the key, then public-key encrypt the signed key
 - public-key encrypt the key, then sign the encrypted key

Key transport using public-key encryption and signature in one-pass

- Encrypting and signing separately:
 - > An option is to sign the key and encrypt the key:

$$A \rightarrow B$$
: {A, K_s, t_A*}KU_B, Sign_A(B, K_s, t_A*)

- Encrypting signed keys:
 - > A variation is to encrypt signed blocks:

$$A \rightarrow B$$
: {A, K_s, t_A*, Sign_A(B, K_s, t_A*)}KU_B

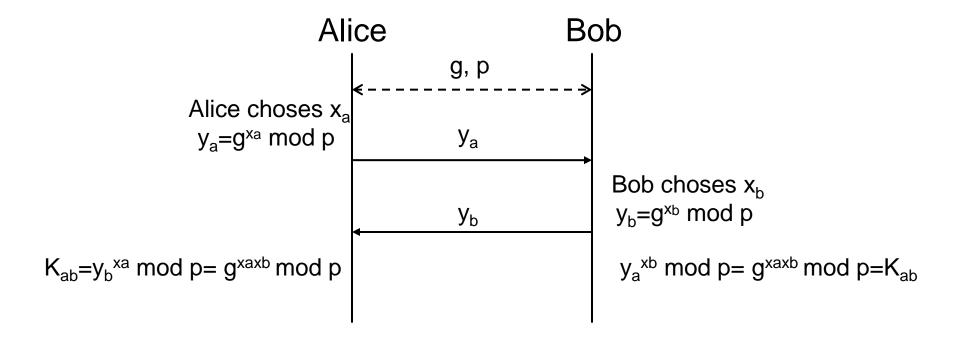
- Signing encrypted keys:
 - In contrast to encrypting signed keys, one may sign encrypted keys

$$A \rightarrow B$$
: t_A^* , Q, $Sign_A(B, t_A^*, Q)$
where Q={A, K_s}KU_B

Key agreement using asymmetric cryptography

Diffie-Hellman key exchange

 The first publicly known public-key agreement protocol was the Diffie-Hellman exponential key exchange

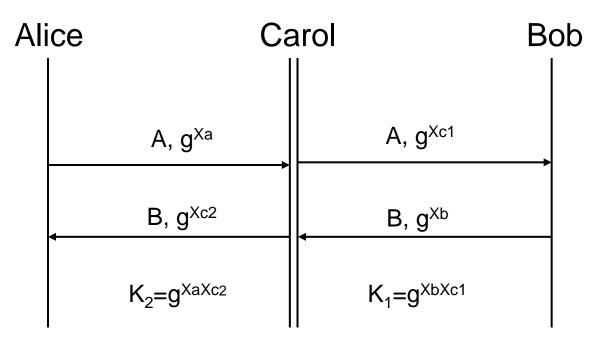


DH modes

- Different ways of using DH:
 - > Fixed Diffie-Hellman
 - each party already has the public part (DH public key) of the other entity
 - Anonymous Diffie-Hellman
 - DH exchange
 - susceptible to Man-in-the-Middle attacks
 - > Ephemeral Diffie-Hellman (EDH)
 - authenticated DH exchange
- Elliptic Curve variant:
 - Elliptic Curve DH (ECDH) uses elliptic curves instead of the multiplicative group of integers modulo p

Diffie-Hellman Vulnerability (MITM attack)

- Anonymous Diffie-Hellman key exchange, does not provide authentication of the parties, and is thus vulnerable to Man-inthe-middle attacks
 - a third party C may run two separate exchanges with A and B, convincing the two peers that the exchange ended successfully between them

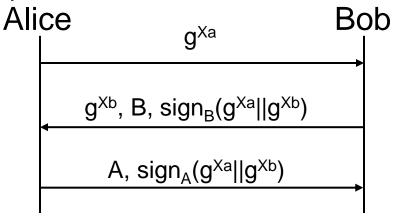


Authenticated DH Exchange

- A wide variety of schemes and protocols have been developed to provide authenticated DH key agreement to prevent man-in-themiddle and related attacks
- These methods generally use:
 - Public/private key pairs
 - Shared secrets

Authenticated DH Exchange (cont.)

 The simplest way to authenticate the DH exchange could be to sign the DH exponentials



- > It does not guarantee implicit key authentication nor confirmation
 - the authenticated entity may be different from the peer that exchanged the secret key
 - a third party C can convince B that the exchange was run with C, by simply replacing the third message with:

$$C$$
, sign_C(g^{Xa}||g^{Xb})

- this attack does not result in a breach of secrecy of the key

Authenticated DH Exchange (cont.)

- Solution: uses signature and Enc
 - > variant of Station-to-Station (STS) protocol

```
A \rightarrow B: g^{Xa}
```

$$A \leftarrow B: g^{Xb}, E_{Ks}(B \parallel Sign_B(g^{Xa} \parallel g^{Xb}))$$

$$A \rightarrow B$$
: $E_{Ks}(A \parallel Sign_A(g^{Xa} \parallel g^{Xb}))$

- Solution: uses signature and MAC
 - > SIGMA Protocol:
 - signatures authenticate the DH exponentials
 - MACs bind the key to identities
 - MAC is performed with a key K_m derived by K_S=g^{XaXb}

$$A \rightarrow B$$
: g^{Xa}

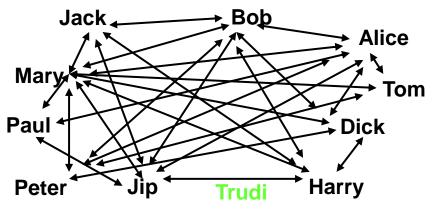
$$A \leftarrow B$$
: B, g^{Xb} , $Sign_B(g^{Xa} || g^{Xb})$, $MAC_{Km}(B)$

$$A \rightarrow B$$
: A, Sign_A($g^{Xa} \parallel g^{Xb}$), MAC_{Km}(A)

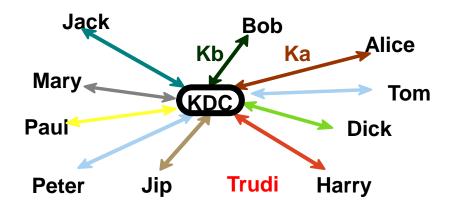
Server-based Key Distribution

Direct trust vs. Trusted intermediaries

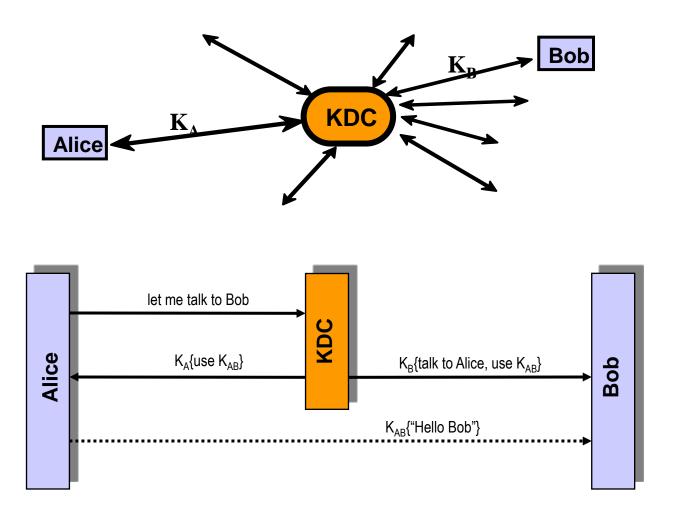
 With N nodes, each node must authenticate each other.. N-1 keys maintained by each node



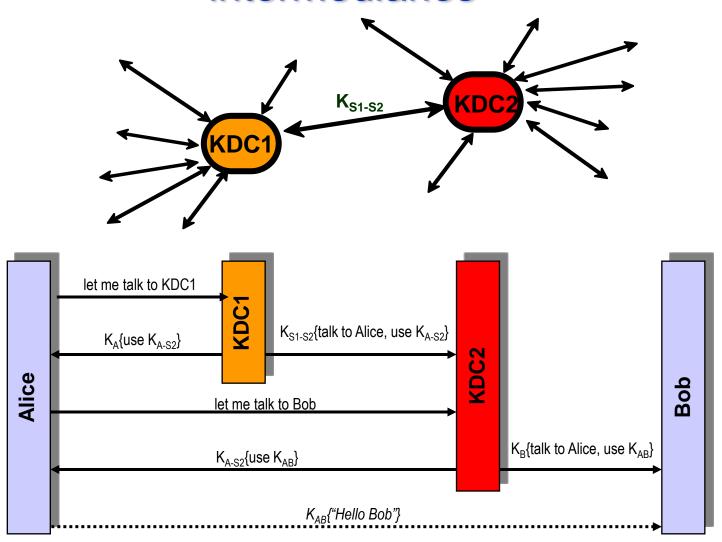
- Possible solution: Trusted intermediate party
 - > Key Distribution Center (KDC) or Key Translation Center (KTC)
 - > similar to CAs for public-key cryptography



Key distribution with a trusted intermediary

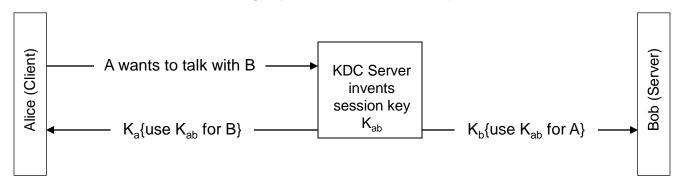


Key distribution with multiple trusted intermediaries



Key Distribution in practice

Key Distribution in theory (Client-Server)



- Key Distribution in practice (Client-Server)
 - > e.g. used by Kerberos protocol

